DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 371 503 EC 303 090

AUTHOR McNair, Jeff, Ed.; Legutki, Gregg, Ed.

TITLE Issues in Transition. Volume Two.

INSTITUTION California State Univ., San Bernardino.

SPONS AGENCY Special Education Programs (ED/OSERS), Washington,

DC.

PUB DATE 93

CONTRACT H029G00008-92

NOTE 37p.; A part of the Transition Specialist Program.

For the first volume, see EC 303 089.

PUB TYPE Collected Works - General (020)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.

DESCRIPTORS Attachment Behavior; Churches; *Church Role; Delivery

Systems; *Disabilities; *Education Work Relationship; Emotional Disturbances; Federal Legislation; Followup Studies; Holistic Approach; Interpersonal Competence; Records (Forms); Secondary Education; *Supported Employment; *Transitional Programs; Vocational

Rehabilitation

IDENTIFIERS Carl D Perkins Voc and Appl Techn Educ Act 1990; *Job

Coaches

ABSTRACT

Six papers address issues in the transition of students with disabilities into the adult world of work. The first paper by Richard Ashcroft and titled "Attachment and Transition for Troubled Youth," reviews the literature on attachment, transition, social skills, and troubled youth and school, and offers a transition strategy which focuses on increasing school attachment and social bonding. The second paper titled, "The Local Church as an Agent of Natural Supports to Individuals with Developmental Disabilities" by Jeff McNair, considers involvement of local churches in providing transition supports to this population, including rules for participation, areas in which the church can provide assistance, and the church as an agent in softening social environments. Next, Joseph O. Turpin, in "Holistic Approach to Transitioning," uses a holistic approach to consider the interaction of factors of personal change, traits of the individual/family, and traits of the environment. The fourth paper, "Job Coach Site Visit Card" by Jeff McNair and others, describes a card used to both assist agencies in collecting information on supported employment programs and to help job coaches monitor their own performance in the provision of support. The next paper, by Joseph L. English, is titled "An Update on the Carl D. Perkins Legislation" with emphasis on the development of quality special focus programs. The final paper "Transition Follow Up" by Carolee A. Monroe examines follow-up of both educational programs and students with severe disabilities. Individual papers contain references. (DB)

^{*} Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made

ED 371 503

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

 Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent officis OERI position or policy

55UES

Volume Tr

Gregg Legutki, M. A.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

2

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

ISSUES IN TRANSITION Volume Two

Edited by Jeff McNair, Ph.D. and Gregg Legutki, M.A.

The Transition Specialist Program is funded through the Office of Special Education Programs, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, U.S. Department of Education (Contract #H029G00008-92)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOR TROUBLED YOUTH Richard Ashcroft, Ed. D.

5

THE LOCAL CHURCH AS AN AGENT OF NATURAL SUPPORTS TO INDIVIDUALS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES

Jeff McNair, Ph. D.

11

HOLISTIC APPROACH TO TRANSITIONING Joseph O. Turpin, Ph. D.

17

JOB COACH SITE VISIT CARD

Jeff McNair, Ph. D.

Pamela Nevils, Carol Gentili

Ann Vessy, M. A. and Norma Muni

23

AN UPDATE ON THE CARL D. PERKINS LEGISLATION Joseph L. English, Ed. D.

28

TRANSITION FOLLOW UP Carolee A. Monroe, M. A.

31



ATTACHMENT AND TRANSITION FOR TROUBLED YOUTH

By Richard Ashcroft, Ed. D.

Hawkins (1987, 1992) has developed interventions for high risk children and youth based upon increasing school bonding. Bonding, or attachment, is the theoretical explanation offered by Hawkins for the process by which we form relationships, both pro- and anti-social. The degree to which an individual bonds or attaches to prosocial settings has been demonstrated to be a major variable in predicting success in subsequent prosocial settings. As a matter of fact, the literature on attachment and bonding identifies being "securely attached" as the singlemost durable variable in predicting transitional successes from infancy throughout the lifespan (Schneider, 1991). Successful future transitions can be anticipated by examining social "risk" factors in the present settings.

Attachment

The attachment literature begins with animal-learning theorist Harry Harlow's now classic 1958 study of rhesus monkeys raised with surrogate "mothers" made of wire mesh. Although either "mother" could be fitted with a feeding nipple, infant rhesus monkeys cler by preferred one that was fitted with a terry cloth covering even under conditions when only the bare wire "mother" had a feeding nipple. These infants were described as more "attached" to the terry-cloth "mother," cuddling it, seeking it out when frightened or stressed and using it as a base for explorations.

Harlow's study extended earlier work by psychoanalyst Rene Spitz, who had shown that infants raised in foundling homes without handling or loving attention tended to wither and often die. Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth (et al., 1978) expanded this early work and defined the field and its terms in relation to the primary caregiver-to-infant bonding process.

Attachment theory derives largely from the disciplines of ethology, developmental psychology, and psychoanalysis (Karen, 1990). John Bowlby, a British

psychoanalyst who originated attachment theory had been urged by Julian Huxley in 1951 to read Konrad Lorenz, particularly his work on imprinting in newborn goslings, the phenomenon by which infant birds "attach" themselves to the first moving thing they see. Bowlby's subsequent three volume work, Attachment (1969), Separation (1973) and Loss (1980), established him as the originator of attachment theory, and established important connections between Freudian and Piagetian constructs. Mary Ainsworth, working with Bowlby, iested the theoretical constructs of attachment, documenting infant behavior under stimulus conditions called Strange Situations (1978). Her work provided empirical support for Bowlby's synthesis of cognition and emotion.

Initially, attachment theory tended to focus upon the parent-child bond and the Bowlby and Ainsworth work focused almost exclusively upon this relationship. During the 1930's, Bowlby had been supervised in child treatment by Melanie Klein, the Vienna-born psychoanalyst who invented psychoanalytic play therapy. Although play therapy examined the child outside of the context of personal relationship, Bowlby's subsequent work began to focus more and more upon the parent child relationship. For example, Bowlby's, Forty-four Juvenile Thieves (1944) noted the high proportion of delinquent boys who had suffered early maternal separation. In the 1950's, Bowlby was warning against separating children from their mothers even if they were "untidy and neglectful." His Maternal Care and Mental Health (1951) asserted that children suffering maternal deprivation were at increased risk for physical and mental illness, and that even a clean, well-run, well-intentioned institution was unlikely to protect a small child from irreversible damage by age three, unless the institution somehow provided a true maternal substitute. By implying that a "maternal substitute" exists, this observation of Bowlby's suggests possible additional aspects of attachment that go beyond the primary motherchild bond.

More recently, some researchers have been studying additional features of attachment: its function in social relationships other than parent-child, and the function of environmental variables that influence attachment. This research is of particular importance to educators since school is identified as an environment to which some children bond strongly. It also suggests such school bonds are healthy, especially for children whose social success has been compromised by family risk factors. For example, Figuera-McDonough (1987) found that for 15-16 year-olds involved in minor delinquent acts, school was a stronger restraint than family attachments. Also, in the report of a thirty-three year longitudinal study (1989), Werner found that, with a few exceptions, children tend to mature into the kind of adults one would expect given the conditions of "risk" or "promise" identifiable at birth. Children born to families that provided care and nurture even before birth tended to turn out well. For the most part, they established early bonded attachments to primary care providers and grew into responsible individuals who parented their own children well. Those born into families with substance, health and behavior problems tended to have similar difficulties of their own and tended to have problems with life's transitions. There were, however, notable exceptions to this process. A significant group was identified who had not formed satisfactory attachments within their primary family but were able to form attachments elsewhere, especially within school contexts. This significantly improved their potential for maturing into productive adults. Termed "resilient children" by the researchers, these individuals showed remarkable adjustment and adaptability to transitions despite early difficulties and substantial risk from biological and environmental risk factors. Some of the risk factors presenting most frequently amongst the most vulnerable children were: 1) chronic poverty, 2) parental discord, 3) parental mental illness/substance abuse. Some of the protective factors identified by the researchers to explain the resilience of certain high risk children were: 1) bonded attachments outside their troubled family (strong attachments seem to mitigate even biological risk factors), 2) skills that enabled them to elicit positive regard from individuals outside their troubled family, 3) having teachers with whom to form bonded attachments, (teachers were frequently identified by resilient children as the individuals to whom they had attached or who provided support at times of family discord), and 4) having an internal locus of control.

Even in studies that did not explore attachments outside the traditional family circle, a close examination of much of the research on bonded attachments reveals that for children whose family life circumstances place them at high risk of having difficult lives, the impact of these risk factors can be mitigated by establishing bonded attachments outside the family. And schools are the environments that are most uniformly accessible to all children.

Transition

Transition, as the term is used in special education, commonly refers to the transition from school to work. This particular transition is of primary concern for educators since it represents the culmination of the years of their work. Since a major goal of public education is to prepare individuals for this transition, much of what we have accomplished can be seen in the results.

There are other transitions important to educators. Certainly the transition from early childhood into the world of public education is as significant. Recent early childhood special education legislation (P. L. 99-457, 1986) is in full implementation, providing services for children identified by degrees of "riskness," services intended to assist in mitigating risk and increasing the likelihood of school success. These are important interventions. Much of what educators consider success can be predicted at the time children enroll in Kindergarten. For example, Rist's longitudinal study (1973) demonstrated that class rank inferred from ability groups established as early as the second week of kindergarten was still in effect four years later. More specifically, Rist observed that kindergarten grouping by entry level ability remained intact for the four years of his study. By third grade, the original members of the group of kindergartners he studied, maintained classroom status and rank that did not differ significantly



from the way they were initially grouped three years earlier by their kindergarten teacher in the second week of school. Other researchers, notably Cohen (1987, 1988), have described similar effects in longitudinal maintenance of early classroom assigned rank and status, noting additionally that student classroom rank is often congruent with their family's socioeconomic rank in their respective communities. Often, a student's rank at high school graduation can be accurately predicted as early as third grade (Cohen, 1988).

Such effects, often explained as a kind of institutionalized expectancy bias, have lead to criticism of the educational system as functioning as "sorting mechanism" that determines entry level rank and then conspires, unconsciously or otherwise, to maintain the differences in rank reflected in these entry level skills. The use of standardized tests, teaching and grading to maintain a "curve," and grouping of children by ability have been major targets for these critics. Many researchers (Johnson & Johnson, 1987, 1991; Slavin, 1990) have called for instructional grouping of students across ability rather than by ability. Other researchers have suggested reforms in assessment (Deno, 1985; Howell, 1986; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1988), calling for procedures that measure the effects of instruction rather than students' ability. Others (Bloom, 1980; Spady, 1982; Anderson & Block, 1987; Cohen, 1987) call for changes in both assessment and instruction intended to produce equal instructional outcomes radically different from the so-called "normal" curve.

Although many of the individuals cited above would be generally thought of as "regular education" scholars, the reforms and procedures suggested are often recommended by "special education" scholars promoting the so-called "regular education initiative" (REI). This initiative, actually a philosophy of reform, calls for educating students who have been identified as handicapped, in regular education settings. Since many of the regular education reforms suggested by regular educators indicate a trend of attempting to accommodate greater heterogeneity in the regular classroom, this trend is in step with REI reforms. This movement towards greater heterogeneity in school social grouping should contribute to enhancing transition from

school to a heterogeneous work force.

Social Skill and Transition

Most approaches to the social component of transition conceptualize the issues as relating to "skills." Social behavior is thought of as the manifestation of skills which must be taught. At any moment, all individuals have a particular repertoire of "social skills." Those a particular individual possesses might enable them to take part in social activity at a country club, a street corner, an after-school club, or to avoid any of these. There is a relationship between our social repertoire and the social settings we frequent. The appropriate set of social skills is seen as the entry to the desired social setting. Stated so, it would seem that desiring entry is prerequisite to learning the skills, or at least an important component part.

Why do individuals desire entry to a particular group or social configuration? Several brief illustrations are offered for contrast. Entry to academic life as a university professor can be conceptualized as achieving mastery over a particular set of social and communicative behaviors which may include: passing classes, tests, interviews and evaluations, and earning an advanced degree. By contrast, entry to the Hell's Angels involves achieving mastery of a rigorous set of social and communicative behaviors which may include: passing tests of social intimidation, physical courage, disassembly and reassembly of a motorcycle, and so on. These examples represent different groups and entry criteria, but both groups are accessed by individuals who master the entry criteria. But before they attempt mastery, they decided to try. What is the mechanism that causes people to select one group over another? Individuals who seek entry to the two groups mentioned as examples might differ one from the other along certain quantifiable lines: socioeconomic level, mechanical ability, physical courage, attitude, literacy levels, social goals, etc. Yet the process that would influence either individual to attempt mastery of the entry criteria for either group is quite similar. The individual "identifies" with the target group. They see attributes in the group or in individuals within the group to which they resonate.



7

Troubled Youth and School

It has been amply established that school failure and criminal behavior of youth are linked. Hawkins and Lishner (1987) conducted a review of literature that explored the relationship between school failure and criminal behavior and concluded that school failure cannot be thought of only in its academic sense. The most powerful predictor of delinquency is when attitude towards school interacts with academic success. In other words, delinquency is highest among students who have poor grades and dislike school, and lowest among students who have high grades and like school. Students who had grades as low as any in the low grade group but who reported "liking school." had significantly less delinquency. These data suggest that the variable "liking school" significantly mitigated the risk for delinquent behavior among this particular group of boys. and this variable may have more to do with social accommodation to the school environment, or social accommodation by the school environment, than it has to do with academic success.

It is also significant that early experience with school is more relevant to predicting delinquency than later experiences. Students who are not highly committed to education are at high risk of delinquency. Students who are not high achievers but are still committed to educational pursuits are less likely to engage in delinquent behavior. Some factors that may or may not relate directly to higher school achievement but definitely relate to reduced delinquent behavior are: participation in school activities. liking school, spending time on homework, perceiving relevance in coursework, having contact with teachers, and having an internal locus of control regarding school environment (Hawkins & Lishner, 1987). Although not necessarily indicative of higher academic achievement, the above behaviors and characteristics are indicators of increased social attachment to school. As such, they are also indicators of decreased delinquent behavior.

Increasing School Attachment As A Transition Strategy

Recognizing that increasing attachment to school

predicts decreased delinquency, it can also be inferred that the likelihood of successful transition would also be increased. These assumptions point to a set of strategies, whose robustness has been tested (Hawkins & Lishner, 1983, 1987). Three methods of instruction have been implemented to promote school attachment. These are proactive classroom management, outcome-based instruction and cooperative learning. These strategies are widely reported and need not be further discussed here. What is particularly germane to a discussion of attachment and transition is the Hawkins & Weiss (1985) Social Development Model (SDM).

SDM conceptualizes social bonding as the most significant variable in predicting either successful transitions through school to adult citizenship, or antisocial behavior. A social bond involves commitment, attachment and belief, and this bond can be formed to any social environment, including prosocial and antisocial lifestyles (Hawkins & Weiss, 1985). Forming a bond with a social environment must include initial involvement through interacting with that environment. Opportunities for initial involvement must be present utilizing skills the individual already possesses. If this initial interaction with the environment leads to learning of additional skill, and if this involvement and/or new learning are reinforced in the environment, greater involvement is encouraged, leading to the formation of commitment, attachment and belief. This model explains attachment to family, school, religion, athletic teams. life style, and other social attachments both prosocial and antisocial. It can predict transition success based upon current attachments. It is also a model that supports treatment intervention.

SDM treatments are derived from strategies designed to foster bonding to prosocial settings such as school. Prosocial bonds are viewed as "protective" factors, mitigating risk presented by biological factors (Werner, 1988), as well as other social, environmental, economic and other factors that place a student's transition at risk.



References

- Ainsworth, M. D., Blehar, M.C., Waters, E. & Wall, S. (1978). Patterns of attachment: Assessed in the strange situation and at home. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlebaum.
- Anderson, L. M., & Block, J. H. (1987). Mastery learning models. In M. J. Dunkin (Ed.), The International encyclopedia of teaching and teacher education, (pp. 58-67). New York: Pergamon.
- Ashcroft, R. (1987). A conceptual model for assessing levels of interpersonal skill. <u>TEACHING</u>: Behaviorally Disordered Youth, 3, 10-21.
- Ashcroft, R., Price, T. & McNair, J. (1992). Teacher perceived training needs in institutional and alternative settings. <u>Journal For Juvenile Justice and Detention Services</u>, 7(1), 41-47.
- Ashcroft, R. (1992a). Attachment & transition.

 Monograph of the Transition Specialist Training

 Program. San Bernardino: California State
 University.
- Ashcroft, R. (1992b). Training teachers for institutional and alternative settings. <u>Journal of Court School Education</u>, 3, 2.
- Ashcroft, R. (1992c). <u>Teacher training needs in California youth authority</u>. Manuscript in preparation.
- Bloom, B. S. (1980). The new direction in education research: Alterable variables. Phi Duta Kappan 61, 382-385.
- Bowlby, J. (1944). Forty-four juvenile thieves: Their characters and home life. <u>International Journal of Psycho-Analysis</u>, 25, 19-52 and 107-27.
- Bowlby, J. (1969). <u>Attachment: Attachment and loss</u> (V. 1). New York: Basic Books.
- Bowlby, J. (1973). <u>Separation: Attachment and loss</u> (V. 2). New York: Basic Books.
- Bowlby, J. (1980). Loss: Attachment and loss (V. 3). New York: Basic Books.
- Cohen, S. A. (1987). <u>Instructional alignment: Searching</u> for a magic bullet. <u>Educational Researcher</u>, 16, 16-20.
- Cohen, S. A. (1988). Tests: Marked for life? Scholastic.
- Cook, L. (1990). Collaboration and cooperation: Key

- elements in bridging transition gaps for adjudicated youth. Transitional Services for Troubled Youth. Eastern Kentucky University.
- Deno, S. L. (1985). Curriculum-based program measurement: The emerging alternative. Exceptional Children, 52, 219-232.
- Eggleston, C. (1991). Correctional education professional development. <u>Journal of Correctional Education</u>, 42(1), 16-22.
- Feindler, E. L., Marriott, S. A., & Iwata, M. (1984).

 Group anger control training for jumor high school delinquents. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 8, 22-31.
- Figueira-McDonough, J. (1987). Discrimination or sex differences? Criteria for evaluating the juvenile justice system's handling of minor offenses. Crime and Delinquency, 33(3), 403-424.
- Fuchs, L. S., & Fuchs, D. (1988). Curriculum-based measurement: A methodology for evaluating and improving student programs. <u>Diagnostique</u>, 14, 3-13.
- Gehring, T., Eggleston, C. & Ashcroft, R. (1992).

 Correctional teacher skills, characteristics, and performance indicators. Monograph of the Robert Presley Institute of Corrections Research & Training. San Bernardino: California State University.
- Goldstein, A. P. (1988). <u>The prepare curriculum:</u> <u>Teaching social competencies</u>. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press.
- Hawkins, J. D., & Lishner, D. (1987). Etiology and prevention of antisocial behavior in children and adolescents. <u>Childhood Aggression and Violence</u>: <u>Sources of Influence, Prevention and Control</u>. New York: Plenum Press.
- Hawkins, J. D., & Weis, J. G. (1985). The social development model: An integrated approach to delinquency prevention. <u>Journal of Primary Prevention</u>, 6(2), 73-97.
- Hawkins, J.D. (1992, January). <u>Building Protective</u>

 <u>Factors Among Those At Greatest Risk: What Can</u>

 <u>Teachers Do?</u> Keynote address presented at Bridging

 <u>Professional Perspectives: Second Annual National</u>

9

9

- Conference on Educating Adjudicated Incarcerated & At-Risk Youth. San Bernardino, California State University.
- Howell, K. W. (1986). Direct assessment of academic performance. <u>School Psychology Review</u>, 15, 324-335.
- Individuals With Disabilities Education Act Of 1990. (P.L. 101-476)
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1987). A metaanalysis of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic goal structures. Hillsdaie, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1991). Learning together and alone: Cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Karen, R. (1990, February). Becoming attached. The Atlantic Monthly, pp. 35-70.
- Kauffman, J.M. (1989). <u>Characteristics of Behavior</u>
 <u>Disorders of Children and Youth</u>. Columbus, Ohio:
 Merrill Publishing Company.
- Mussen, P. H., Conger. J. J., & Kagan, J. (1979). Child development and personality. New York: Harper & Row.
- Olweus, D. (1979). Stability of aggressive reaction patterns in males: A review. <u>Psychological Bulletin</u>, 86, 852-875.
- Patterson, G. P., Reid, J. B., Jones, R. R., & Conger, R. E. (1975). A social learning approach to family intervention. Vol. 1: Families with aggressive children. Eugene, OR: Castalia.
- Patterson, G.R. (1982). <u>Coercive family process</u>. Eugene, OR: Castalia.
- Perryman, P. (1988, October). Predicting recidivism of handicapped and nonhandicapped juvenile offenders. In R. Rutherford (Chair), <u>Teacher educators of children with behavioral disorders conference 12</u>. Tempe, AZ.
- Pulkkinen, L., & Saastomoinen, M. (1986). Cross perspectives on youth violence. In S. J. Apter & A.
 P. Goldstein (Eds.), Youth violence: Programs and perspectives (pp. 262-281). Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.

- Rist, R. C. (1973). The urban school: A factory for failure. Cambridge, MA: MIT..- 23. An ethnography of school life over three years for some disadvantaged youth: Depressing descriptions of schooling.
- Rutherford, R. B., Jr., Nelson, C. M., & Wolford, B. M. (1985). Special education in the most restrictive environment: Correctional special education. <u>Journal</u>. of Special Education, 12, 59-71.
- Slavin, R. E. (1990). <u>Cooperative learning: Theory.</u> research and practice. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Spady, W. G. (1982). Outcome-based instructional management: A sociological perspective. The Australian Journal of Education, 26, 2.
- Thornton, S. (1989). Curriculum reform in the correctional classroom. <u>Journal of Court School Education</u>, 1(2), 3-6.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. (1979).

 Lasting effects after preschool. Washington, DC:
 Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government
 Printing Office.
- Walker, H. M., Shinn, M. R., O'Neil, R.E., & Ramsey, E. (1987). A longitudinal assessment of the development of antisocial behavior in boys: Rationale, methodology, and first year results. Remedial and Special Education, 8(4), 7-16.
- Weissberg, R. P., Cowen, E. L., Lotyezwski, B. S., & Gesten, E. L. (1983). The primary mental health project: Seven consecutive years of program outcome research. <u>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</u>, 51, 100-107.
- Wolf, M. M., Braukmann, C. J., & Ramp, K. A. (1987). Serious delinquent behavior as part of a significantly handicapping condition: Cures and supportive environments. <u>Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis</u>, 20, 347-359.



10

THE LOCAL CHURCH AS AN AGENT OF NATURAL SUPPORTS TO INDIVIDUALS WITH DEVELOPMENTAL DISABILITIES®

By Jeff McNair, Ph. D.

Abstract

Persons with disabilities have typically relied upon federal and state funded programs to support them in their daily lives. With the diminishing of resources, other avenues need to be pursued. This article discusses the local church as a vehicle for supporting individuals with disabilities. Areas of support typically associated with transition programs are described. A rationale for involvement in the local church is articulated.

Transition Outcomes

The transition movement has developed in order to assist individuals with disabilities to access adult outcomes. In the past, significant numbers of persons with disabilities were not accessing the outcomes typically associated with being an adult. Generally speaking, these outcomes can be grouped under four headings. These include 1) employment, 2) independent living, 3) recreation and leisure pursuits, and 4) what might be termed "social satisfaction." Let us look at each of these briefly.

Employment relates to the having of a job. This job has come to be defined in special education and rehabilitation circles as being comprised of 3 elements. Jobs are to be integrated, paid minimum wage or better, and entail the performance of socially valuable work or service. Independent living relates to living in the "least restrictive environment" possible for a specific individual. The least restrictive environment implies a continuum of living arrangements encompassing the range from intermediate care facility to one having this or her own apartment or owning his or her own home. In the area of recreation and leisure, outcomes include opportunities to pursue one's own personal avocational interests. This area is important

© Copyright 1993, the Board of Trustees of California State University, San Bernardino

in that not only does this area enrich one's life, it is through these activities that friendship are frequently developed. Finally, although one might be employed, living as independently as possible, and having the opportunity to recreate, there might still be feelings of a lack of social satisfaction in life. Perhaps an individual has a limited or nonexistent sphere of friends, or is unfulfilled in work, leisure or living arrangements. This area of social satisfaction will in many ways temper how the other areas are perceived and should therefore be considered a full partner in determining the "success" of an adult.

Funding

A key concern in the provision of any state provided services is the funding of such services. Although transition services have been mandated in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA Legislation), funding continues to be a pivotal issue. Additionally, the IDEA legislation only carries an individual through to age 22. At that point, they are to be picked up and served by other agencies such as the Department of Rehabilitation. Social Security Administration, Department of Mental Health, or the Department of Developmental Disabilities. Each of these agencies have their own set of eligibility criteria. Additionally each of them have their own waiting periods, and fiscal constraints. For example, in California, the State Department of Rehabilitation made it a priority to serve the "most severely disabled clients." These constraints compound the difficulty which clients face in attempting to access appropriate services.

From the service provider's perspective, funding is obviously a major issue. Increased case loads translate into spartan service provision and often frustrated case workers.



Clients as a result become frustrated with services and either choose not to participate if they are able to do so or just loose hope. In some situations, clients will face nearly year long waiting periods for basic Rehabilitation services. In the meantime, they remain out of work, and at times homeless.

The above discussion is not meant to be an indictment of adult service agencies. By no means. These agencies struggle with the constraints they face. As stated, they are also frustrated with their inability to serve their clients. Rather, the above comments might be considered an indictment on the system.

State Support versus Natural Support

Much of the frustration described above grows out of the assumption that if the state does not provide support services, then none will be experienced by the individual needing services. Anecdotally, I have observed that the reliance upon the state oftentimes results in a form of "learned helplessness." The learned helplessness, however, is not constrained to the individual needing the assistance, but also to others in the community having the potential to help. Although not overtly stated, the sentiment is not unlike that of Ebenezer Scrooge in Charles Dickens' A Christmas Carol. Scrooge when approached by agents of a charitable foundation remarks:

"Are there no prisons? . . . And the Union work houses? . . . Are they still in operation? . . . The Treadmill and the Poor Law are in full vigour, then? . . . Oh! I was afraid, from what you said at first, that something had occurred to stop them in their useful course. . . I help support the establishments I have mentioned: they cost enough: and those who are badly off must go there."

His assumption although portrayed in a negative manner is that because he pays taxes he is therefore removed from any obligation to the poor. More importantly for our purposes, he assumes that his taxes are adequately providing for the needs of the poor. Now if the poor were regularly within his midst, if they were somehow a part of his life, then he would recognize that the state only provides a subsistence

level of support and much more is needed. As the agents of the charitable organization state:

"Many can't go there; and many would rather die."

"If they would rather die," said Scrooge, "they had

better do it, and decrease the surplus population.

Besides -excuse me- I don't know that."

"But you might know it," observed the gentleman. He might know it. However, because he is sheltered from

He might know it. However, because he is sheltered from them he is able to live on in his misconceptions about how they live.

What is needed is some means whereby those individuals needing support can intrude upon the sheltered haven of those having the potential to provide support but not providing it. I believe that most people if confronted with a problem will attempt to be a part of the solution rather than a part of the problem (note that I said MOST). The generosity of these individuals is often stifled. however, by their not knowing what to do. "I would love to help, but I don't know where to start." A statement such as this in some ways betrays the maker as someone who is removed from the sirn. Referring back to Scrooge again, after his interactions with the Christmas ghosts, he immediately grasped ahold of a course of action. The ghosts brought him into direct contact with Bob Cratchit's situation. He therefore used his resources to purchase a goose, buy toys for the children, assist with medical services for Tiny Tim, etc. Additionally, he sought out the agents of the charitable foundation and made a generous contribution. That is, Scrooge recognized that he could help by supporting individuals with whom he had direct contact while concurrently augmenting state benefits by contributing to the coffers of organizations providing services to supplement the state benefits.

The Local Church

It wasn't until Scrooge was confronted by the three ghosts that he finally saw his responsibilities clearly. In order to impact persons having the potential to support individuals with disabilities in the community, we must find the appropriate time and place for the confrontation. This setting ideally would be one where 1) the individual people who are meeting have an interest in helping others.



2) that the people who are meeting represent a divergent group of people, having expertise in many areas, and 3) that the group itself be committed to helping people. It would also be beneficial if the group were one that was available in virtually every community. Finally, it would be important for this group to be a "free agent." That is that, themselves are not necessarily linked with a specific adult agency. Rather, they can act on their own behalf, apart from governmental regulations.

The above could be a characterization of the local church. As a group, churches probably comprise the largest philanthropic organization on earth. If a church is worth its salt, it is in the business of improving the lives of others. People attending churches represent a wide variety of socioeconomic levels, occupations, and social networks. The match between the needs of adults with disabilities and the local church is truly "made in heaven" (pardon the pun). Unfortunately, if one were to examine the recent natural support literature. little is written about this potential relationship (Nisbet, 1992).

Rules For Participation

The devil's advocate might ask, "Yes, but what is the price for the receiving of support from the local church" (sounds like something an advocate for the devil would say). Because the church is a free agent, and can spend its resources as it pleases, requirements for the reception of services would be linked to meeting the standards a local church would impose. Some churches are very circumscribed in their requirements. Many people choose to go to churches such as these. Others are less dogmatic. Many people also choose to go to churches like these. Our goal should be to try to engage as many churches as possible in ministry to individuals with disabilities, so the individuals with disabilities will have a choice. If the only ministry in town is at the Baptist church, then you either conform to the program of Baptist church, or choose to not participate. However, if Baptist, Presbyterian, Catholic, and Evangelical Free churches all offer programs for developmentally disabled adults, then there is more room for choice. With increasing participation there are increased options to find a church home which meets one's specific needs.

Independent of which type of church offers a program, what might be requirements for participation? I know of no church which would prohibit someone from simply attending. This would require the least level of commitment. As an attendee, there would be exposure to church teaching. With increased interest, one might get involved in attending a specific group, like a class for adults with developmental disabilities. With further interest one might become involved in service to the church in the form of assisting to set up chairs, serving communion, acting as an usher, or working with children. Finally, one might choose to become a member of the church. This process results in a commitment that usually implies one will regularly attend and pray for the church and its members, as well as contribute time, talent and money to the ministries of the church. When one ultimately makes the decision to become a member of the church, such a commitment is joyfully undertaken. There is no compulsion.

Above, it was stated that receiving support would be linked to meeting whatever the standards a local church would impose. Although this is true, more than likely, much of the support would be provided by individuals, not on the basis of decisions of some church elder board or the like. Therefore, linkages would be based on people getting to know each other and then giving whatever help was needed. That is, if someone needed a ride somewhere, or five dollars, or some moral support it would be provided by free agents within the larger church body.

Areas in Which the Church can Provide Assistance

There are probably as many areas in which churches can provide support to individuals with disabilities as there areas needing support. In my ten year tenure in church ministries to adults with developmental disabilities, churches and church members have provided assistance in innumerable ways. However, as our goal in this article is to describe the benefit relative to transition services, we will focus our attention on areas related to transition.

The author is currently directing a program for adults with developmental disabilities at a local church.



Below we will list each transition support area. We will then briefly provide examples of how our program has been influential in facilitating appropriate outcomes relative to that area.

Finding Employment. Often and for a variety of reasons, individuals with disabilities are unable to gain employment. At times this is due to an inability to link up with adult service agencies. Whatever the reason, churches have been able to find employment for individuals with disabilities. For example, our church program was able to assist a young man find employment. This individual was not receiving SSI, was not eligible for Developmental Disability services, and was on a 10 month waiting list to see the a Rehabilitation counselor. We were able to find this individual a part time position on a volunteer basis. After working for 3 weeks as a volunteer, he was hired as a full time employee.

Health/Medical Services. Depending upon which services an individual with a developmental disability is receiving, he may or may not be already eligible for medical benefits. An individual in our program once injured his back. At that time he was not receiving Social Security services. His injury needed immediate medical attention, so we could not wait for the appointment scheduled a month hence, to begin the process to become eligible. Through physicians within our church, we found out about a program called the Medically Indigent Adult program. A church member drove the man to the emergency room at the hospital, assisted him to fill out forms, waited with him for 5 hours, took him to a pharmacy and purchased his medication, and then drove him home.

Transportation. There have been many cases of church members providing transportation to church and other events to participants in our program. As a member of our program becomes known to more church members and visa versa, the potential for the meeting of transportation needs becomes increasingly more likely.

Financial Support. It is a common occurrence for church members to assist program participants financially. When a class participant was out of work, church members hired the individual to do odd jobs. Additionally, members will give money on random occasions.

Social Support. Much of the activities of the church revolve around social events. These include everything from regular church services, to family events, to special dinners or programs. Participants in our program periodically choose to be involved in these events. Additionally, it is not uncommon for them to be asked out for lunch after church.

On one occasion, a woman in our program was invited out to have her hair done by a person from the congregation. In the midst of conversation, the woman with the disability stated that someday she hoped to have some work done on her teeth. She has lost two of her front teeth in a fall. The friend who had taken her out to the hair appointment mentioned the woman's desire to another friend at church. To make a long story short, the woman is scheduled to see an orthodontist from the church who will be providing her with his services free of charge.

Finding Independent Living Arrangements. To date, we have not had the opportunity to assist any of our program members in finding living arrangements. This is, however, a hope for the future. One person within our church is attempting to set up living arrangements which could be used on a temporary basis. That is, should an individual loose her current living arrangements and have nowhere to stay, she would have the opportunity to stay at this residence for a period of up to a month. The funding for these arrangements will most likely come from the church.

Education. Churches provide a variety of educational services to attendees of the church. Christian churches provided Biblical training in areas relative to spiritual issues as well as Christian behavior. However, it does not end there. In one of our recent classes, we explained to program members the risks associated with sexual intercourse with multiple partners. This frank discussion included the risks associated with sexually transmitted diseases. Of course matters of sexuality as well as other areas are couched in a Christian perspective, and efforts are made to help class members to apply the training to their lives.

In another situation, a class member was taking classes through an adult school program. An individual from the church assisted the student with her work,



including preparing reports on a computer. This support not only helped the student to do well in her class, but also was an encouragement to her to stick with her studies.

Opportunities for Service. One other area of support is to provide opportunities to the adults with developmental disabilities for service. Just as nondisabled church goers need opportunities to serve, members with disabilities also relish in opportunities to serve. Service is a tangible expression of our faith. In our program, persons with disabilities have worked with children's ministries, acted as ushers, and have assisted in a variety of other areas. With responsibility comes dignity, and individuals with developmental disabilities need dignity as much as any of us.

The Church as an Agent in Softening Social Environments

In a past article on workplace support (McNair, 1991) the author described ways in which the workplace could be "softened" via the use of several strategies. One of the strategies, built upon the work of Hazasi, Gordon, & Roe (1985). These authors discussed the importance of the "parent, family, friend network" in the finding of potential job placements. McNair (1991) described how the employer's desire for positive regard from the network can result in the opening of otherwise closed employment settings. He also suggested that because the workplace was approached through the network, minor social skill deficits would be more likely to be tolerated. Workers would be less likely to loose their jobs for minor social skill reasons because of the continuing positive regard desired by the employer from the network. By approaching employers through networks when attempting job development or job placement there would tend to be a greater likelihood that the job would be maintained because of the relationship between the employer and the network.

When an individual becomes a member of a church they immediately inherit an extensive network. In Christian churches, the analogy is even used of "being adopted into God's family." Therefore, when an individual becomes a member of a church, they immediately increase their network by the number of members within the church. It

should also be added that this new "church family" is the individual's own network. They choose to become involved with the church, so they build their own network.

The church network, however, is not limited to members of the church. The network also includes their families and acquaintances. Additionally, there are networks of professionals having that specific area of religious dedication. The author, for example is a member of several Christian faculty groups. Such is the same for Christian physicians, businessmen, etc. Via chusch membership, people truly become potentially connected with extensive networks which once again are trying to serve God, an integral part of which is serving their fellow man.

Now the points described above relative to the use of networks to soften work environments applies here also. Only the local church offers the opportunity to soften such a myriad of networks.

Can you imagine the difference in human service activities if an individual with disabilities was firmly entrenched in a local church. Job development would perhaps start at the local church. The seeking of living arrangements would include opportunities through the local church. Assistance with social satisfaction would be an ongoing activity of the local church, and many recreation and leisure activities would be focussed around the local church. Through involvement in local church recreation activities, transportation would also be facilitated.

Conclusions

In this article an attempt was made to outline the potential benefits of local church involvement to individuals with disabilities. Specific instances of generous, non-state funded support are described. A rationale is also provided as to why people with disabilities need to find their way to a local church.

When George Bush was president, he coined the phrase, "1000 points of light." What a clear way to illustrate the power of individuals to impact their communities. There are many thousands of local churches across our country. Many are already in the business of providing programs and support to individuals with disabilities. Many more would be involved if confronted

with the good they could do, and given the expertise to proceed. People with disabilities stand to benefit significantly if we provide them with opportunities to become involved with local churches. The churches will also benefit.

References

Dickens, Charles (1967). <u>A Christmas Carol</u>. Philadelphia: J.B. Lippincott Co.

- Hazasi, S., Gordon, L. & Roe, C. (1985). Factors associated with the employment status of handicapped youth exiting high school from 1979-1983. Exceptional Children, 51(6), 455-469.
- McNair, J. (1991). Workplace Support. In J. McNair & N. Kronick (Eds.), <u>Issues in Transition</u> (pp. 5-10). San Bernardino: The Transition Specialist Program at California State University.
- Nisbet, J. (Ed.). (1992). Natural supports in school, at work, and in the community for people with severe disabilities. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.



HOLISTIC APPROACH TO TRANSITIONING

By Joseph O. Turpin, Ph. D.

Moving from the protected closely supervised world of the high school environment to the outside world is an enormous step for any individual in society. It is a demarcation in our society between adolescence and adulthood. Such a step moves one from a position of responding to structure and direction within the school setting to choosing from a wide array of potential directions including further schooling or the world of work. For the most prepared student, who knows clearly what they want to accomplish, this is a time of great anxiety. For the student who is less sure of their own talent or is hesitant about how others may view his or her skills, this time becomes an extremely frightening period. For the student, however, who has been identified by the school system as needing specialized services for extended periods, this time may prove to be the most traumatic in their life.

This move toward adulthood does not take place in isolation, but rather it is usually accompanied by the encouragement and concerns of the family and peers. In the case of the student who is clear in their objectives, the family serves as a sounding board of encouragement and clarification. For the family, there is little doubt that although the exact direction may be vague, the goal will be realized if the student perseveres. With the student that is less clear about the future, the family often becomes a resource of possibilities and models which have been accomplished in the past. The family often views this time as an adjustment period confident that the student will "find a niche." However, for the student that has received specialized educational services, the family often has a much greater concern regarding the student's future. The parents have often agonized over the future for their child and now it is here.

Making the adjustment from adolescence to adulthood a manageable process is difficult under the best of circumstances, but when the student and family have heightened concerns about the future often those concerns

are voiced to the most readily available professional. That caring individual could be the special education teacher, the vocational education teacher, a counselor, or other helping professional. As helping professionals there are some identifiable pieces of information that can help us determine the amount and direction of the services that may be needed by an individual and family making this personal change.

Holistic Approach

For a helping professional to be responsive to the issues of the individual and family in a productive manner, it is important to consider the personal change in a way that permits a close look at a variety of factors playing a role in the adjustment. In the case of a student making a transition from the school to life activities beyond the reach of the public school, it is important to recognize that in each situation the factors considered may or may not have significance in the adjustment process. However, the counselor needs to consider carefully the factors related to the personal change, the personal traits of the individual, and the environment in which the adjustment is to occur.

A personal Change can be viewed as a process precipitated by an event which causes one to make alterations in one's thinking and/or behaviors in order to adjust to the event. The event may be as subtle as recognition that a long held dream will not occur. The dream my be: to go to college, to get married, or to have children. Any one of these events if they do not happen by a certain time may also lead to a personal Change. In such a case, the individual is forced to adjust their behavior to conform to the belief that the event will not occur for them.

In other situations, it is also possible that the event may be traumatic and deviating, for example, an accident which leaves the individual paralyzed and physically challenged. Here the individual needs to reassess and adjust their goals, while developing behaviors to meet these new goals. In each case, the personal Change has a set



of traits that are common to it which help the counselor to understand how this change is unique to this individual.

FACTORS OF THE PERSONAL CHANGE Time of Occurrence

The first of these traits is the Time of Occurrence. Time of Occurrence refers to when this Change is taking place in an individual's life. It is when we would anticipate such a change to occur or is it at a time when it might not be expected. For example, the individual who is transitioning from a sheltered workshop into the work environment six to eight years post traumatic head injury not only may have heightened concern with regard to her/his skills, but may also recognize that this is not the typical age to be making this change. This factor alone may cause in some individuals heightened self-concern.

Initial Recognition

Initial Recognition for the individual may be gradual and foreseen or it may be sudden and unexpected. As the professional works with the individual and family, it is important to recognize how the individual and family interpret this transitioning from school. Even though this is an event that could have been foreseen, is it viewed that way by the individual and family or do they see this as a sudden change that in their mind was unexpected? The parent might suggest "We knew it would happen, we just didn't think it would be so soon." For the individual, their involvement in school often causes the individual to disregard many of the preliminary aspects of transitioning until it is about to occur.

Responsibility for change

Does the individual see the change as coming from outside their control? Is the event viewed by the individual as under their control? This particular trait has aspects of the concept locus of control. Does the student/family see responsibility for this transitioning resting with the student or with sources outside the individual or family. If the change were the result of a traumatic accident does the individual view the event as primarily their responsibility

or the responsibility of another party.

Presenting Attitude

Each event stirs specific attitudes on the part of the individual in change. Sometimes those attitudes are positive, sometimes negative, and in many cases a mixture of the two. For example, a wedding would appear to be an event which would generate positive attitudes. However, it may be a mixture of feelings. It is not uncommon to have set of feelings referred to as "cold feet." It is also possible to have a mixture of both feelings at the same time. The love and happiness that one feels for their mate is inextricably mixed with the fears and anxieties of leaving the familiar and striking out in new and uncharted directions. To understand this mix in the individual, helps the professional to more clearly see ways to offer assistance to the individual in Change. A similar mix of feelings may be present in the individual who is embarking on an exciting but somewhat frightening new activity.

Duration of the effect

Change may be permanent, temporary or uncertain. As the change occurs the response that individuals make is in part related to what effect this will have on their life. If the impact is clearly defined, then one makes changes which will be of a permanent nature. The individual who loses a leg in an auto accident, for example, will begin to make change based upon their new physical potential. For the woman who breaks her leg in a skiing accident, change is made based upon a temporary condition and no real alteration is made to the personality. She knows that this change is not permanent and that her plans and goals will again be within grasp when this temporary condition is finished.

When the duration of the change is uncertain or cannot be determined then the problems for the individual are multiplied. If, for example, the man receives a diagnosis of cancer (melanoma), which is operated on and appears to be successfully controlled. Such a prognosis always carries with it a percentage based upon reasonable medical expectations which tend to improve with time. The typical

time-frame for uncertainty following melanoma is a fiveyear cancer free period. It is during this period that the heightened level of uncertainty is present, does he stick to his prior plans and proceed as if nothing had happened or does he reassess his goals and direction in life and begin to make changes. Each of these choices is personal and reflective of the personality of the individual.

Level of Anxiety

When working with an individual in the process making changes in their life, it is important to recognize how the individual views this Change. One important measure of this change is the level of anxiety which the change produces in the individual. What for one individual may be a major life issue for the next individual becomes little more than an inconvenience. It is the job of the helping professional to interpret this anxiety in an accurate and sensitive manner. Caution needs to be given at this point to the helping professional that they not read their own level of anxiety into the change and use it as the measure of actual anxiety present in the individual.

TRAITS OF THE INDIVIDUAL / FAMILY

In addition to the factors that are unique to the element of Change, there are also unique aspects that set each individual/family apart from others and make the actual experience of change a truly singular occurrence. The combination of these traits allow each individual/family unit to have atypical patterns of response to the process of change.

Psychosocial skills

Each individual has a response to the interactions and personalities of other individuals. Each has the ability to naturally recognize personal dilemmas and to see ways to resolve those dilemmas. For some, this skill is highly developed and those around that individual seek them out for advice and counsel. For others, the ability to perceive another's feelings or even their own may be a task which is extremely hard to accomplish. It is the level of this skill within the individual that the helping professional needs to

assess in order to understand how the individual is perceiving this problem.

Gender

The gender of each individual needs to be considered within the context of the personal Change issue. For one gender, the issue may have greater import than for another. The loss of physical prowess within our society carries greater impact on the male, all other factors being equal, than the female. For the female, the loss of gender specific body shape carries greater concern than for the male in our society when all other factors are equal.

Age

The age of the individual may play a role in understanding the repercussions the personal Change has on the individual's life. For an individual to develop heart problems at age 85 after having lived a full and active life carries different issues regarding the restrictiveness of the disease than if the individual were 19 and preparing for an active future.

General State of Health

Whatever the nature of the change, it will be influenced by the overall health of the individual. For an individual who is faced with the complexity of multiple health issues, the additional concerns presented by the event may be overwhelming even when the actual event does not appear significant. For the individual who is mobility challenged and spends 2 hours independently preparing to leave the home. The thought of leaving the secure confines of the home and school to venture out into the world of work may be overwhelming to the point of stagnation.

Race/Ethnicity

The hereditary background may play a role in the way an individual responds to a personal Change in their life. The generalized cultural differences of individuals need to be considered when understanding how an individual may respond to a crisis. For some individuals raised in a cultural tradition that values the stoic manner in the face of



tremendous pressure, small amounts of feeling may reveal a tremendous amount of concern with regard to the issue. While another individual raised in a culture that emphasized the emoting of feelings and the externalization of attitudes may quite naturally express comfortably the majority of their emotional thoughts. Each is reflecting what within their cultural heritage is comfortable and secure for them. However, it is important for the helping professional to consider the display of emotion based upon the cultural mandates of the individual.

Socioeconomic Status

Response to a crisis has variations based upon the socioeconomic status of the individual. When a crisis/change occurs it may have a number of implications, quite often the implications are attached to financial costs. For an individual or family without the financial resources to accomplish the ancillary issues, the change takes on the proportions of a crisis. Not all problems are those that can be solved by pure economics, some problems may be addressed by the individuals that are within the social community of the individual. If my family has substantial financial resources and I have a problem with my electric wheelchair on a holiday, it may not be of any help in solving my immediate problem. If I have social connections with individuals that can work directly on my problem then I will probably be able to get help regardless of my economic position.

Value Orientation

Individuals over the course of their lives develop certain values that they hold in higher esteem than other values. It is important for the helping professional to have a sense of what this individual holds as a value orientation. The counselor needs to understand a general ranking of values to better appreciate how this particular personal Change will have bearing on the individual. Values are usually thought of as the importance one places on intangibles such as: religion, the family, trust, power, and triendship; and tangible assets such as: money, home, electronic equipment, boats and cars. The value orientation

is the order that one places the item in as we go about our daily lives. It is not just the stated intent of the individual, but the actual demonstration of these values that the helping professional must understand in order to work with the individual in Change.

Previous Experience with Change of a Similar Nature

The level of experience that one has with the type of change one makes can have a great amount of influence over the degree of difficulty experienced during the adjustment period. It is possible for an individual to experience a problem with which they have no prior experience. This could be a traumatic accident that leaves the individual with quadriplegia, where the individual has had no prior experience with the problems associated with the challenges faced by such an occurrence. However, it is likely that the individual will have had some kind of exposure to the problem varying from knowing a number of other individuals personally who have experienced the same types of problems. To the modeling types of experiences where one may have seen a film or television production depicting the types or problems associated with this Change issue. For example, the issues dealing with adolescent years have been covered in multiple ways by television and the film industry. One step further in this process, individuals can rely upon the printed word. In the book the reader is able to feel apart of the emotion and turmoil of any particular problem. Historically, bibliotherapy has been used to help many individuals through periods of Change in their lives, but it is also the source when presented prior to the personal change of being a modeling experience.

Nuclear Family

Each individual brings to the personal Change an experience with a nuclear family, how they have been treated and seen in that family will influence how they will respond to adaptation. When the individual has been expected to find solutions and develop independently from the family, the process of transitioning may be facilitated.



Where the individual within the nuclear family has been restricted and not allowed to test their own adequacies then the task of adjustment may be more difficult. The degree to which the individual has been encouraged by the family to develop flexibility will play a large measure in the ultimate ease with which the individual is able to make the necessary adjustments to continue successfully with their lives.

Family Network

It is also significant to understand how the individual perceives himself/herself in relationship to other members of the family. Each individual through their childhood interactions with other family members develops a perception of themselves. Sometimes the perceptions are positive allowing a individual to see the world from a position of advantage. It is also possible that through interactions early in an individual's life that the messages conveyed spoke to second rate, less than successful, and plagued by problems. In some cases, the individual has found some areas defined by the family as success areas while other areas are relegated to some other family member as the most successful. These early messages defined by the family system then practiced and extended into the larger community become the framework in which most individual's live their entire lives. An understanding of this framework by the helping professional can lead to setting the stage for the individual to have a successful adaptation.

TRAITS OF THE ENVIRONMENT

Support Systems

The support systems are those units around us that lend stabilization to our lives and keep us functioning in the face of uncertainty. Examination of the support system needs to focus on the changes in the support system before the event as compared to after the event. As the amount of support that is available after the event is reduced the ability of the person to make an easy adjustment will be reduced. A reduction in the support system may be created by the event itself. For example, the individual may move across the country to accept a new position. When this occurs the existing system of supports is greatly reduced. If the person

moves to the new location without husband and children, then the family as a support mechanism must operate at long distance. This support although present is greatly reduced. The close friendships are maintained initially by letter and telephone until the person has a chance to develop new friendships and relationships in the new location. The institutional support available through a cross-country move usually is reduced to very near zero. If the individual is working within a corporate structure and the company is backing this change then the individual has their corporate institution behind them. Otherwise, the institutions have some generalized similarities from one location to the next, but the specifics of the institution must be learned anew with the new destination.

Family

The helping professionals need to have a sense of how the family supported the individual prior to the Change and how that support has been altered by the change. In working with the family, one needs to appreciate how other members of the family are handling this Change and treating the individual. Has this event drawn the family closer together or is it driving a stake between family members. Are the family united in their attitude? Has the family developed different sides to this Change? Are the issues pragmatic or emotional? Is the family choosing sides?

Friends

A sense of the friendships in terms of types (i.e. doing versus being friends) as well as quantity and how these relationships are altered by the Change. The helping professional needs to understand the role of friendships in the individual's life. In some situations individuals develop friend relationship which are primarily of the "doing" variety. That is, the friendship centers around mutually enjoyed activities and interests. A second type of relationship centers around "being" as a form of friendship. Here, the emphasis is on the enjoyment of the relationship itself, not activities, that create a bonding. Individuals in a "being" relationship tend to share personal feelings and



attitudes with one another, while those in a "doing" relationship tend to share feelings and attitudes with regard to events and activities held in common. Individuals usually have a mixture of these types within themselves and their friendships.

As individuals find the need to adapt to a personal Change that requires an alteration of life activities. The individual with "doing" friendships where shared activities are effected by the adjustments may find those friendships to be vulnerable. While the individual with "being" friendships will find, except for the difficulties associated with changes in time frame and geographic change, this type of friendship less subject to alteration.

Often the success that an individual makes with regard to a specific personal Change is related to the network of friends that are able to remain supportive through the adjustment period. Recognizing and encouraging the individual to utilize their network of friends in a positive fashion is a task of the helping professional.

Institutions

In each individual's life there are societal institutions which provide a level of stability, for the individual in personal Chan, a. The support available from these institutions may be altered by the very nature of the

change. The institutions may include but not be limited to: the religious community to which one belongs, an educational network, a welfare network, a health system, a commercial institution, a banking system. Each of these institutions can play a role in the stabilization of an individual in change. The approach of the institution to the change may be imperceptible or it may be the most significant outside influence on the individual. What the response is and how it is perceived by the individual is vital for the helping professional to understand.

Conclusion

There is no single factor that will make the process of adapting to the change that occurs in an individual's life easy. There are, however, a number of factors that if understood in the prospective of the individual or family make the professional's effort at helping more productive. If the type of change that the individuals is adapting to is understood for what it means in the life of the individual, if the professional can see the individual for whom they are, and if the network of support institutions are understood for the contributions they have made in the past to the individual and the role they are currently playing in the change process, then the direction and type of assistance is easier to predict.



22

JOB COACH SITE VISIT CARDo

By Jeff McNair

California State University, San Bernardino

Pamela Nevils, Carol Gentili, Ann Vessy, and Norma Muni

West End Special Education Local Plan Area

Overview

The Job Coach Site Visit Card is used to both assist agencies in collecting information on aspects of the support they provide in supported employment programs, and to help job coaches to monitor their own performance in the provision of support.

The instrument is based upon work by Rusch (Rusch, Hughes & McNair, 1988), and McNair (McNair, 1989; McNair & Rusch, 1993) relative to workplace support. It is useful in providing a baseline from which support services can be evaluated, in focusing support providers on the contribution of indigenous support, and in awareness of fading of support services when appropriate.

Card Narrative

Date:

In this space put the date you visited the target employee.

Job coach ID:

In this space put your initials.

Target employee ID:

In this space put the target employee's identification number. This could be a social security number or some other type of identification.

Work Site:

In this space put the name of the place where the student works.

Type of job:

In this space put the type of job the student is doing.
© 1991, Trustees, California State University, San
Bernardino
© 1993, Revised Version, Trustees, California State
University, San Bernardino

Examples of job types are; dishwasher, bus boy, custodian, lawn keeper, etc.

Type of placement:

Circle the type of supported employment placement in which the student is working. An *individual placement* is a situation where one individual with a disability works in a in a setting typically without other workers with disabilities (Rusch, Trach, Winking, Tines, & Schutz, 1987). An enclave is a situation where several employees work in a single location. Target employees can work as a group in a *clustered enclave situation*, or can be placed individually throughout a business in a *dispersed enclave situation* (Rusch et al., 1987).

How much time did you spent today on this worksite today? From __: _ To__: _ (__hrs__min).

In these spaces, first put the specific time you spent on the worksite. For example, From 1:20 To 3:45 if the job coach has spent that time on the job site. The job coach should then determine how much time that is altogether. So, from 1:20 to 3:45, is 2 hrs and 25 min which then should be placed in the space with parentheses.

For this question, calculate approximately how much time you spent directly interacting with the target employee. By "directly interacting" we mean, time you spent a) talking with the target employee, b) providing instruction to the target employee, c) prompting the target employee, and/or d) praising or rewarding the target employee. Indicate how many hours and how many minutes you spent directly



interacting with the target employee on the space provided.

How much time did you spend evaluating the target employee? (__hrs__min)

For this question, calculate approximately how much time you spent evaluating the target employee. A distinction was made between directly interacting and evaluating because you may not be directly interacting when you are evaluating. Indicate how many hours and how many minutes you spent evaluating the target employee on the space provided.

Mark with an "X" the type of support you

provided as job coach and mark with another "X" the support provided by co-workers or others in the worksite (mark all that apply): Co-worker/other Job Coach _ Training target employee on social skills _ Training target employee on specific job skills Training target employee on pre-employment skills Providing information to the employee with disabilities Advocating with co-workers/supervisors ____ Evaluating target employee performance ____ Providing information to co-workers Facilitating advocating by co-workers _ Facilitating associations with co-workers ___ Facilitating training by co-workers _ Facilitating provision of information by coworkers

Training target employee on social skills.

Other_

Other

This support type relates to identified training needed in a specific social skill area. For example, a worker may need specific training in how to respond to greetings by coworkers. A program for providing that training would therefore be developed and carried out regularly. Additionally, progress is being monitored on an ongoing

We will take each of the above and discuss them separately.

basis. If the job coach is providing this training, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach." and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are providing this training, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Training target employee on specific job skills This support type relates to identified training needed for a specific job skill area. For example, a worker may need specific training in how to use a carpet scrubber. A program for providing that training would be developed and is being carried out regularly. Additionally, progress is monitored on an ongoing basis. If the job coach is providing this training, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are providing this training, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Training target employee on pre-employment skills

This support type relates to identified training needed in a specific "pre-employment" skill area. By "pre-employment skills" we mean basic, generic work skills necessary across job environments. These skills include, asking for more work when current job is completed, asking questions if an instruction is not understood, responding to commands that need an immediate response, looking busy when work for the day has been completed, etc. By way of example, a worker may need specific training in reporting to work on time, another example of a "pre-employment skill." A program would therefore be developed for providing this training and carried out regularly. Additionally, progress is being monitored on an ongoing basis. If the job coach is providing this training, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are providing this training, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Providing information to the employee with disabilities

Providing information is distinguished from training in that



training is programmed planned input on a regular basis. Also, worker performance on training is monitored on an ongoing basis. Providing information, however, means giving information to a worker on a variety of topics only as needed. For example, someone may tell the target employee not to spit in the water fountain, or to occasionally slow down level of production because of a lack of materials, or to use a tool in a slightly different manner. In each of these cases, information was provided to the target employee to guide their performance, but systematic training was not provided and performance was not monitored as would be the case in training. If the job coach is providing information, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the coworker or others in the employment setting are providing information, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Advocating with co-workers/supervisors

Advocating can be defined as optimizing, backing and supporting a worker's employment status. Optimizing means encouraging a supervisor to assign high-status and relevant tasks to the target employee. Backing refers to supporting a target employee's rights, for example, by attempting to prevent practical jokes aimed at the target employee. It also includes speaking up for the target employee or offering explanations during differences of opinion. Supporting means providing emotional support to the target employee in the form of association, friendship, etc. (Rusch, Hughes, & McNair, 1988). If the job coach is acting as an advocate, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are acting as advocates, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Coworker/others."

Evaluating target employee performance

Evaluating entails making judgments about the target employees performance which in some way will impact him. This impact may be felt by the target employee in the form of increased or decreased training, an increase or decrease in job tasks, and promotion or lack thereof. Evaluation might also relate to the justification of the

payment of subminimum wages, or that subminimum wages are no longer appropriate. If the job coach is evaluating, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are evaluating, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Providing information to co-workers

In most cases, job coaches or co-workers/others will not be providing training to co-workers in the job site about people with disabilities, supported employment programs, etc. However, it is highly likely that job coaches or co-workers/others may be providing a variety of information (as defined above) to co-workers about persons with disabilities or supported employment programs. This type of information is a form of providing support and was therefore included. If the job coach is providing this information, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are providing this information, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Facilitating advocating by co-workers

Advocacy as defined above includes optimizing, backing and supporting. Facilitating means encouraging or assisting others to do something. If the job coach is facilitating advocating, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are facilitating, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Facilitating associations with co-workers

Associations are interactions between workers in the workplace and the worker with disabilities. Interactions may be talking, waving, gesturing, smiling, or other ways of interacting, Facilitating means encouraging or assisting others to do something. If the job coach is facilitating associations, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are facilitating associations, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Facilitating training by co-workers

As stated above, this support type relates to identified training needed in a specific skill area. A program for providing training is one that has been developed to address a specific skill and is being carried out regularly. Facilitating means encouraging or assisting others to do something. If the job coach is facilitating training, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are facilitating training, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Facilitating provision of information by co-workers

Providing information is distinguished from training in that training is programmed, planned instruction provided on a regular basis. Also, worker performance on training is monitored on an ongoing basis. Providing information, however, means giving information to a worker on a variety of topics only as needed. If the job coach is facilitating information provision, an "x" should be made by this item under the heading of "Job Coach," and if the co-worker or others in the employment setting are facilitating information provision, then an "x" should be placed under the heading of "Co-worker/others."

Other

If there are other types of support provided by the job coach or co-worker/others, please check that space and indicate the type of support provided on the space.

In which of the following ways are you

checks

current	tly fading your presence?
	Using less intrusive instruction (less intrusive
	prompting, thinning reinforcement, etc.)
	Decreasing amount of time in direct interaction
	with target employee
	Decreasing amount of time in target employee's
	immediate area
	Decreasing amount of time present on the work
	site
	Decreasing number of periodic, on the work site

Job coaches are not natural members of a work site. They are an intrusion to some degree, independent of how skilled

they are. This is only because most individuals without handicaps do not need job coaches in order to gain and maintain employment. So, because we want employees with disabilities to be treated as much as possible like individuals without disabilities, we only want to involve job coaches in supported employment to minimum extent needed by the target employee. For this reason, job coaches should always be looking toward fading their presence as appropriate. In considering a fading process, it is important to remember that we are working in supported employment. which by definition includes the concept of ongoing support. Therefore, the job coach may never be able to totally fade her presence from some settings. At the same time however, all that needs to be provided in an ongoing manner is support. Who provides the support is a different issue. So when fading support, on the one hand we are looking to increase target employee competence, while on the other hand we are looking to the employment environment to be responsible for providing support in areas needed by the target employee. With this in mind, lets consider each of the above strategies for fading a job coach's presence from the workplace.

Using less intrusive instruction (less intrusive prompting, thinning reinforcement, etc.)

First, a job coach may use a less intrusive form of instruction. Clearly with some employees, training strategies needed are different than those typically used to train employees without disabilities. As a target employee becomes more competent, training strategies should more and more look like those used for employees without disabilities. That is, hand over hand prompting should be replaced with talking a student through a task. Additionally, constant verbal praise should be replaced by verbal praise being provided only every so often (intermittently). In these ways, the job coach is fading her presence although still interacting directly with the employee with disabilities.

Decreasing amount of time in direct interaction with target employee

As a target employee becomes more competent, the amount of time spent in direct interaction with him should be decreased. The job coach is still in the target employee's



presence, but her interactions with him are decreased.

Decreasing amount of time in target employee's immediate area

As a target employee becomes more competent, the amount of time spent in the target employee's immediate area should be decreased. The job coach is still present on the worksite, however, is in a different room, or different part of the work area away from the employee with disabilities.

Decreasing amount of time present on the work site

As a target employee becomes even more competent and independent, the amount of time spent at the workplace should be decreased. The job coach still makes brief visits, but just for short periods.

Decreasing number of periodic, on the work site, checks

Finally, with ongoing independent performance, periodic checks can be decreased.

References

Rusch, F. R., Hughes, C. & McNair J. (1988). Coworker involvement manual, Campaign, IL: University of Illinois, Secondary Transition Intervention Effectiveness Institute.

McNair, J. (1989). Coworker involvement in supported employment programs. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana.

McNair, J. and Rusch, F. R. (1993). The coworker involvement instrument. Paper submitted for publication.

JOB COACH SITE VISIT CARD®			
Dade Job Coach ID	Target Employee ID		
Time of lab			
Type of Placement (circle one) Individual Clustered Enc	ave Dispersed Enclave Other		
tWhat was the specific time you spent today on this worksite? From			
How much time did you spend directly interacting with the target employee? (<u>nrs min</u>)			
*How much time did you spend evaluating the target employee? (<u>hrs min</u>)			
Mark with an "X" the type of support you provided as job coach and mark with another "X" the support			
provided by co-workers or others in the worksite (mark all that a	apply):		
Job Coach	Co-worker/others		
Training target employee on social skills	1.itta		
Training target employee on specific job s	KIIIS		
Training target employee on pre-employer	h disabilities		
Providing information to the employee wit	h disabilities		
Advocating with co-workers/supervisors	·		
Evaluating target employee performance			
Providing information to co-workers			
Facilitating advocating by co-workers Facilitating associations with co-workers	Annual State Company of the Company		
Facilitating training by co-workers	workers		
Facilitating provision of information by co			
Other			
Other			
our presence?			
In which of the following ways are you currently fading your presence? Using less intrusive instruction (less intrusive prompting, thinning reinforcement, etc.)			
Decreasing amount of time in direct interaction with target employee			
Decreasing amount of time in target employee's immediate area			
Decreasing amount of time present on the work site			
Decreasing number of periodic, on the work site, checks			
Doubtdoing name of posterior, or the	·		

AN UPDATE ON THE CARL D. PERKINS LEGISLATION

By Joseph L. English, Ed. D.

Introduction

The Cail D. Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act Amendments of 1990 implements a national agenda that has been in place for the past 25 years by continuing to focus federal resources on special populations, while at the same time, also plotting a new future course for vocational education well into the next century. Even though the objectives are clear and well intentioned, operational outcomes will probably tend to not reflect the desired level of performance.

Only time will tell if the new legislation has potential for achieving its broad objective of having all students prepared well for work. However, Resnick (1987) argues that because education has traditionally been very successful in preparing some students for college, it may be a very difficult task to persuade schools to adequately address the occupational and career needs of all children. It seems obvious that K-12 schools maintain a philosophical framework that creates "difficulty in preparing students for futures that do not include four years of college" (Wegner, 1992, p. 1).

While the vocational education dilemma for persons with disabilities is only one issue addressed by the new Perkins Legislation, it is appropriate at this juncture to discuss several major changes in the 1990 version of Perkins.

Overview of Changes

In the context of change, several major categories have been identified and will be discussed. First, the new legislation begins to shift toward using vocational education as a vehicle for mastering academic and other higher order skills needed for linking thought and action. Implicit in this new model is the requirement that academic and vocational education be integrated at both secondary and post secondary levels. These changes are in sharp contrast

to the traditional job-skill model of vocational education and are indicative of the need to prepare all students to be part of the "thinking workforce" of the future (Resnick and Kolopfer, 1989).

A second major change in Perkins, 1990, focuses federal funding in school districts with the highest number of students from poor families, i.e., states must direct federal money to districts where the need is greatest in terms of reform and program improvement. For example, the Perkins formula requires that local funding be based on the following:

70% on Chapter 1 enrollment 20% on handicapped enrollment 10% on total enrollment

At the post-secondary level, the following criteria must be used:

Number of Pell Grants

Number of Bureau of Indian Affairs Grant recipients Specifically, special-focus vocational programs must concentrate funding on a limited number of sites and a limited number of program areas, especially where the highest proportion of special-focus student are located.

A third change affecting vocational education at the local level is focused on two areas - leadership and assessment. Districts are expected to assume a leadership role in reforming and improving regional vocational programs. The development of new assessment models are encouraged at the local level in order to establish a data base necessary to plan for reform and program improvement efforts.

Perhaps the most significant aspect of the change toward local leadership and assessment is that initiatives should come from the local level and not the state. Perkins, 1990, requires districts to develop local plans for using federal funds. Previously, each state was required to submit



a state plan for using federal vocational funds. However, now local districts must complete needs assessments designed to determine programmatic needs. These changes are critically important for these implementing special-focus vocational programs. As Levitan and Gallo (1988) have pointed out, vocational programs for large segments of the special-focus population have failed because these students lacked basic skills which prevented them from acquiring the technical skill necessary to move into the economic mainstream.

The fourth and last change that will be discussed is the dichotomy addressed in the legislation between secondary and post secondary levels of vocational education. For the first time, a distinction between the two levels has been clearly articulated. While the two levels serve the same purpose, each has a unique funding formula. This change leads to one conclusion - Congress now has a vehicle to allocate proportions of federal vocational money rather than allow each state to decide how much each level will receive.

Congressional Intent

While the funding issue regarding secondary and post-secondary will continue to be debated, one should be reminded of the purposes associated with the new Perkins Legislation:

1) To integrate academic and vocational curricula in order to motivate all students, increase their achievement, and make the U.S. more competitive in the world economy; 2) to effectively address the needs of students with disabilities, those who are economically disadvantaged, female students enrolled in non-traditional vocational programs, and those students who lack proficiency in English; and 3) to increase the job level expected of vocational students by increasing the level and breadth of technology taught in the vocational program (Wirt, 1991, p. 429).

The new law clearly defines special-focus program development as one of the purposes for which funding is available. However, the need for quality program development is obvious and remains a priority item for

local vocational education planning.

Developing Quality Special-Focus Programs

While it is certainly evident that handicapped and disadvantaged populations served by vocational education have a myriad of specialized problems, it is also evident that these students have not been well served in programs designed for the apprenticeable trades. Additionally, data indicates that these special populations are over represented in vocational education. Therefore, the following programmatic recommendations are offered to provide a basis for effective vocational education programming designed to serve the needs of special populations:

- 1. Needs Assessment Each student must have a comprehensive needs assessment designed to yield information regarding basic skills including cognitive, affective, and psychomotor development; ability to maintain workplace standards, i.e., promptness in getting to work on time, ability to communicate, take directions, and work in a safe manner; placement decisions include single skill components of apprenticeable trade programs, sheltered workshops, and cooperative work experience.
- 2. Delivery Model cooperative work experience programs are most effective and appropriate for those students in a special population who are functioning at a level where they can benefit from instruction provided in the workplace by the employer.
- Supervision workplace supervision must be provided by program people with technical expertise.
 However, in those districts where a part-time arrangement exists it is imperative that counselors visit the workplace regularly to evaluate students.
- 4. Facilities for those students who by virtue of their condition are placed in a sheltered workshop situation, it makes little difference whether the workshop is in a vocational technical school or elsewhere. However, it is important to note that no purpose is served by bussing these students from one school to the other.

In sum, for the special student who is capable and can benefit from a cooperative vocational work study experience, these individuals should be placed in the program and provided with appropriate "on the job"



instruction along with school supervision. For the student who can benefit from basic single skill instruction in a traditional vocational program, (drill press operator training in the machine shop) opportunities for these students should be provided prior to their participation in the cooperative work experience program. For the more profoundly handicapped student needing specialized services such as a sheltered workshop, it is probably not a good idea to attempt to service these individuals in a part-time service center. These students should be served by a program which is not interrupted by bussing but provided as part of their regular school program.

With a dwindling U.S. workforce, it is now extremely important that schools devote energy and resources to programs designed for human resource development. It is especially crucial that those individuals classified as having special needs be better served by the educational system.

References

- Levitan, S and Gallo, F. (1988). A second chance: Training for jobs. Kalamazoo, MI, Upjohn Institute.
- Resnick, L. (1989). Education and Learning to Think.

 Committee on Mathematics, Science, and Technology

 Education. Washington D.C.: Research Council.
- Resnick L. and Kolopfer, L. (1989). Toward the thinking curriculum. <u>Current cognitive research: 1989</u>

 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and <u>Curriculum Development</u>. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Wegner G. (1992, September). Educational Quality of the Workforce. EQW Working Papers, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA.
- Wirt, J.G. (1991). A new federal law on vocational education: Will reform follow? Phi Delta Kappan, 72(6), 425-433.



TRANSITION FOLLOW UP

By Carolee A. Monroe

Madeline Will (1984) was the catalyst who set off a movement much like Arlo Guthrie sang about in Alice's Restaurant. Her focus was on the plight of Americans with disabilities. At that time, unemployment in America was about 7%, while unemployment for persons with disabilities was about 65% (Fagan & Jenkins, 1989). Ms. Will stated that one-twelfth of the gross national product was being spent on services for persons with disabilities. These monies were supporting a lifestyle of dependency, rather than helping persons with disabilities achieve maximum possible independence.

She proposed a new national focus: a priority of helping students with disabilities take a fuller role in mainstream American life. At the time of Ms. Will's proposal, a generation of children with disabilities who had benefited from the legislation of PL 94-142 were ready to exit the security that the public schools had provided (DeStefano, 1990). Ahead was uncertainty.

Upon leaving school, students with disabilities would face many serious problems in the areas of employment and community living. Families would be affected as well (Dowdy & Smith. 1991). There was a complicated array of agencies available to help, but little knowledge or planning to access these services (Rusch & Phelps, 1987). The 1983 Amendments to the Education of the Handicapped Act (PL 98-199) were the means by which the concerns of persons with disabilities could be addressed. This law provided for the creation of transition models. Grants were to be funded and their projects examined and evaluated. Transition planning for students with disabilities was to be the bridge whereby these students would more successfully adjust to the complexities of adult life (Rusch & Phelps, 1987; Wehman et al, 1988; Will, 1984).

The concept of transitioning and the actual programs to implement it were seen as emergent and, as such, evolving; within two years, they had at least a 25%

change in design and/or content (Smith, 1990). Results of these original projects are now being published (DeStefano. 1990; DeStefano & Stake, 1990; Smith, 1990). Society may soon hold public education accountable for both the appropriate employment and successful adjustment to community living of our young adults with disabilities (Wehman et al, 1988).

Follow-Up of Educational Programs

Since its inception, transition has been assessed and evaluated to insure it accomplishes the goals set for it: 1. The development and implementation of a curriculum with teaching methods that lead to employment and community adjustment; 2. The establishment of a multidisciplinary team to facilitate transition; 3. Appropriate placement in employment with successful community living for students with disabilities (Dougan & Kaney, 1988).

Internal evaluation, that is, evaluation of and by the local service agency, is provided for in its fourth and final component: follow-up. Preceded by the other three components of transition, foundation, process, and culmination, follow-up validates the work of the agency. Did the agency, in the first three components, develop and implement a curriculum that led to placement in (a) further education/training or employment and (b) community living? Did the agency establish a multidisciplinary team that facilitated the transition of the student? Is the agency recognizing and addressing necessary services required by the exited students and their families? Has the agency established an on-going system of recording student need (Bruininks, Wolman & Thurlow, 1991)? Also, are the students and their parents, as clients, satisfied? Have they gained insight into why or why not they have been successful? Finally, are they becoming their own case managers (Brant & Berry, 1991)? When these questions are answered in the negative, modification and change are



necessary in the sending ano r the receiving agencies (Noonan & Kilgo, 1987; Wolery, 1989). As Meyer (1991) observed, "Educability is more a question of how services are designed and delivered than a question of the capability of the individual" (p. 289). Follow-up provides for redesigning and reworking to insure a quality and appropriate curriculum (Benz & Halpern, 1987).

Besides assessing delivery of services that directly affect students, follow-up, according to Bruininks et al (1991), can affect national policy and provide cost-benefit analysis. A review of the literature on follow-up demonstrates that these emergent programs met some of the goals of transition follow-up. Listed below are some follow-up studies of persons with cognitive disabilities who are or have been transitioned from school to post-secondary environments, and conclusions of the various researchers:

In 1991, Aune first summarized follow-up studies of students with learning disabilities who had gone on to college and technical training. The students, one year after high school, had difficulties completing their courses and staying in school. Aune next advanced the need for a transition counselor to initially case manage (thereby modeling) until the students individually became their own advocates. Concerns to be addressed included the self-awareness of each student of his or her strengths and limitations, and best methods of remediation or compensation.

A follow-up survey by Adelman and Vogel in 1990 was made of college students who had been identified as having learning disabilities who had participated in a learning opportunities program at the college level. Upon entering college, the students had been evaluated, given compensatory strategy instruction and remediation, and had the benefit of the entire faculty and staff cooperation in supporting their learning. These researchers attempted to contact 89 students; 59 ultimately responded. Thirty-six of these students had graduated from college. The graduates seem to have benefited most by an understanding of themselves, their disabilities and the effects of the disabilities on their lives.

Another study of students with learning disabilities who had exited school found both employment and social

difficulties. Dowdy and Smith in 1991, ascertained that almost one-third were unemployed. These authors criticized a school system which required a basic academic skills focus and competency assessment, rather than a functional living skills curriculum. They stated that each individual student's future goals should determine the content of a unique plan of study. The authors then presented a sequenced "Future-Based Assessment/Intervention Transition" model (p. 103), which is both reality-based and includes follow-along.

Brolin and Gysberg, in 1989, reported in a telephone survey of 1,000 individuals with disabilities, that two-thirds were unemployed. Of those with jobs, the majority were employed part-time. In response to this situation, the authors advocate for a "Life-Centered Career Education" curriculum.

Acknowledging that students with learning disabilities fall behind in every social and economic measure, Fairweather and Shaver (1991), question which of two post-secondary education programs these students should participate in. Currently, approximately the same percentage of youth with disabilities as those without disabilities are enrolled in vocational-technical programs. However, 56% of students without disabilities are enrolled in two- and four-year colleges, while only 15% of students with learning disabilities are enrolled, even though there is a strong vocational focus at most two-year colleges.

After analyzing several employment studies of persons with disabilities, Okolo and Sitlington (1988) found that the measures of economic achievement (salary rate, total hours of employment, entry-level status and benefits) were much lower for these people than for those without disabilities, except for percentages of population employed, which were equal. They speak out against a basic academic curriculum and for a vocational-social focus with job-related academics. Students need an ITP linkage between school, work experience and further education, with follow-up to continue training and lead to career enhancement.

In 1990, Sitlington and Frank reviewed six followup studies of young persons with disabilities, using a format developed by Halpern to evaluate levels of community integration. While employment rates were



32

comparable with persons without disabilities, the other measures of economic achievement lagged, as in the preceding study by Okolo and Sitlington. Paid employment during high school was the only positive correlate found.

Together, these individual follow-up studies of young persons with learning disabilities give definite guidelines for the transition process. All students need a realistic goal focus, based upon a clear self-concept, which includes recognition of their individual strengths and limitations. Students and their families must come to a realization of the effect the disability has on their lives. They must be aware of and choose appropriate remediation skills and compensatory devices. Post-secondary options should be investigated and given serious consideration. Real work experience, such as a part-time job or summer employment, is a must. The curriculum, individualized through the use of IEP/ITP, must address the student's goals, and be open to revision. For most students, a curriculum that is life-centered, career-oriented and functional may be the best approach. A special component should address personal socialization skills. including selfadvocacy and personal case management. Finally, professional follow-up can assist achievement of current goals and lead to improvements in the process for future transitioning of students.

Follow-up of Students with Severe Disabilities

The follow-up of persons with more severe cognitive disabilities has a different focus. While it is expected that most students with less severe disabilities will require temporary service from community agencies, those with more severe disabilities will require on-going services (Dougan & Kaney, 1988). McDonnell and Hardman (1985) list those issues they consider critical to the successful transitioning of these students:

- 1. Students need to be trained for those jobs available within the community. These community resources must be inventoried and accessed.
- Too few programs are available to students after their formal schooling is completed. Those which exist have long waiting lists.
 - 3. Adult community services do not address fully

the various life domains of training/employment, personal management/residence, and social/leisure. A system which provides these services and coordinates and expedites access to them is needed.

4. Parental involvement is important, however, families are strained both emotionally and financially. The parents need knowledge of eligibility requirements and entitlements so they can make informed and educated decisions. Through the ITP and follow-up, these issues can be resolved.

For students with severe disabilities to be successful on the job, Gaylord-Ross and Chadsey-Rusch (1991) see the need to plan and then follow-up with both the individual and the work environment. Things to be considered in the work environment are: (a) the requirements of skill, quality of work, and responsibility; (b) necessary social and personal (time management, interaction style, etc.) skills; (c) the supervision style, staffing ratios and work patterns; and (d) provisions for salary, benefits and advancement. With this information, transition specialists can work with a team consisting of job coach, vocational educator and employment specialist to educate and train prospective employees. Follow-up then is based on the job requirements and the satisfaction of the novice worker.

Hasazi et al (1985) did a statewide follow-up study in Vermont of 243 students with mental retardation who had exited school between 1981 and 1983. Two-hundred and nine young adults were identified as "EMR;" nearly half were unemployed. Of those with jobs, 93% were in competitive employment and 61% found their jobs themselves or through the family-friend network. Only half of those with jobs were working full-time, however, another 20% worked more than half-time. There were 25 young adults in the study who were identified as "TMR." Two-thirds were unemployed. Males were employed twice as often as females. Those persons who had had part-time or summer jobs now had jobs with better status and wages. The study reports on three residential possibilities: at home with parents, on own, or in a community placement. Onefourth of those students identified as TMR were in community residences. The study also reviews three other follow-ups that show 31% to 37% full-time employment.

Half-time to full-time percentages range from 41% to 69%.

Brickey, Campbell and Browning (1985) followedup 51 persons with developmental disabilities who had been placed five years before in competitive employment, after first being employed in sheltered workshops. Almost half were persons with mild developmental disabilities. Twentythree persons had moderate developmental disabilities. The remaining three persons had severe developmental disabilities. Two-thirds were living with their parents. When questioned, they were perplexed at the idea of returning to a more restrictive work setting.

A study by Schalock and Lilley (1986) examined the quality of life of persons with developmental disabilities placed in the community after being institutionalized. They found these people to be more independent, assured and optimistic.

Paul Wehman has done many follow-up studies of persons with developmental disabilities. In 1985, Wehman, Kregel and Seyfarth's study found an unemployment rate of 75% for those persons with severe handicaps. Of the 117 persons interviewed, only eight were earning more than \$100.00 monthly. Another report in 1985, by Wehman, Hill et al., continued earlier published studies. This may be the first study involving a concerted effort to place so many (167) persons with developmental disabilities in competitive employment. The components included job placement, training and advocacy, on-going assessment and retention, and follow-up/follow along. All jobs paid at least minimum wage. Job coaching was an integral part of the program.

A study by Kregel, Wehman, Seyfarth and Marchall in 1986, examined the amount of community integration of 300 persons with developmental disabilities. They looked at five areas of competency in which the people actually took part in basic self-care, home management, mobility, community facilities and use of money. These people accomplished 75% to 100% independence in eating, toileting, dressing, bathing and cleaning their own rooms. Other areas of the study included socialization and recreation skill proficiency. The study recommends more activities that support mobility and independence, as many of these individuals spent most of their time homebound with their

families or in watching TV or listening to music.

In 1987, Hill, Wehman, Kregel, Banks and Metzler used the concept of "follow-along" rather than "follow-up," including a cost/benefit analysis, with SSI reductions. This concept of cost/benefit is continued in the Wehman et al. (1989) follow-up study. Here, the authors advocate for competitive employment placement while the student is still in school. Supported employment, they believe, will enable parents to see that this is a viable and preferable option to the sheltered workshop.

The content of these studies implies the need for a case management system with follow-along. Parents and community agencies should be involved. Initially, real work for real pay needs to begin before the student leaves school. Supported, competitive employment is recommended. The family-friend network needs to remain intact. Long range, community residential placement will be necessary.

Conclusions

The issues in transition are broad, and follow-up appears to be in emergent early stage of development itself. Benz and Halpern, in 1987, reviewed Oregon's transition services for students with mild disabilities. Only one-third of the school districts had implanted some type of informal follow-up, such as talking with parents. Of this one third. 15% used a formal survey. Halpern (1990) believes this present lack of documentation works against efforts to improve our schools and transition programs. He advocates a follow-along methodology. The major desired features include: (a) follow-along (because it is longitudinal and will give figures for analysis and comparison); (b) the sampling strategy should be identified as descriptive or explanatory; (c) all variables should be clearly defined and measured; and (e) the community adjustment, or dimensions of quality of life once out of school should include residence, personal/social and post school education, along with the more commonly measured employment. Only with the use of a general model such as this, can any analysis and comparison be made of an individual person's changes, of a program's changes, or of various transition programs.

References

- Adelman, P. R. & Vogel, S. A. (1990). College graduates with learning disabilities employment attainment and career patterns. <u>Learning Disabilities Quarterly</u>, 13, 154-166.
- Aune, E. (1991). A transition model for postsecondary-bound students with learning disabilities. <u>Learning</u>
 <u>Disabilities Research & Practice</u>, 6, 177-187.
- Benz, M. R. & Halpern, A. S. (1987). Transition services for secondary students with mild disabilities: A statewide perspective. Exceptional Children, 53, 507-514.
- Brandt, M. D. & Berry, J. O. (1991). Transitioning college bound students with LD: Helping the students with LD prepare for college. <u>Intervention in School and Clinic</u>, 26, 296-301.
- Brickey, M. P., Campbell, K. M., & Browning, L. J. (1985). A five-year follow-up of sheltered workshop employees placed in competitive jobs. Mental Retardation, 23, 63-71.
- Brolin, D. E. & Gysberg, N. C. (1989). Career education for students with disabilities. <u>Journal of Counseling</u> & <u>Development</u>, 68, 155-159.
- Bruininks, R. H., Wolman, C., & Thurlow, M. L. (1990). considerations in designing survey studies and follow-up systems for special education service programs. Remedial and Special Education, 11(2), 7-17.
- DeStefano, L. (1990). Evaluating effectiveness: Federal expectations and local capabilities. <u>Studies in Educational Evaluation</u>, 16, 257-269.
- DeStefano, L. & Stake, R. E. (1990). Needed research on evaluation: Approaching it from the context of transition programs for handicapped adolescents. Studies in Educational Evaluation, 16, 197-207.
- Dougan, P. & Kaney, H. (1988). <u>California Transition</u>. Sacramento, CA: Resources in Special Education.
- Dowdy, C. A. & Smith, T. E. (1991). Future-based assessment and intervention. <u>Intervention in School and Clinic</u>, 27, 101-106.
- Fagan, T. K. & Jenkins, W. M. (1989). People with disabilities: An update. <u>Journal of Counseling & </u>

- Development, 68, 140-144.
- Fairweather, J. S. & Shaver, D. M. (1991). Making the transition to post secondary education and training. Exceptional Children, 57, 264-270.
- Gaylord-Ross, R. and Chadsey-Rusch, J. (1991).

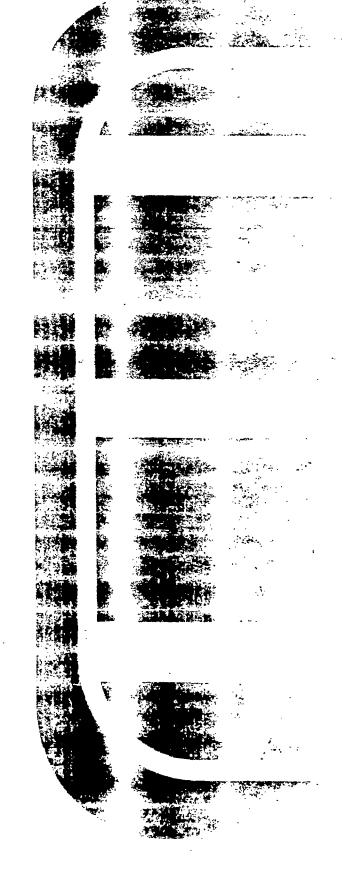
 Measurement of work-related outcomes for students with severe disabilities. <u>Journal of Special Education</u>, 25, 291-304.
- Halpern, A. S. (1990). A methodological review of follow-up and follow-along studies: Tracking school leavers from special education. <u>Career Development</u> for Exceptional Individuals, 13, 13-27.
- Hasazi, S. B., Gordon, L. R., Roe, C. A., Finck, K., Hull, M., & Salembier, G. (1985). A statewide follow-up on post high school employment and residential status of students labeled, "mentally retarded." Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded, 20, 224-234.
- Hill, M. L., Wehman, P. H., Kregel, J., Banks, P. D., & Metzler, H. M. (1987). Employment outcomes for people with moderate and severe disabilities: An eight-year longitudinal analysis of supported competitive employment. <u>Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps</u>, 12, 182-189.
- Kregel, J., Wehman, P., Seyfarth, J., & Marshall, K. (1986). Community integration of young adults with mental retardation: Transition from school to adulthood. <u>Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded</u>, 21, 35-42.
- McDonnell, J. & Hardman, M. (1985). Planning the transition of severely handicapped youth from school to adult services: A framework for high school programs. Education & Training of the Mentally Retarded, 20, 275-286.
- Meyer, L. H. (1991). Why meaningful outcomes? <u>Journal of Special Education</u>, 25, 287-290.
- Noonan, M. J. & Kilgo, J. L. (1987). Transition services for early age individuals with severe mental retardation. In R. N. Ianacone & R. A. Stodden (Eds.), <u>Transition Issues and Directions</u> (pp. 25-37). Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.
- Okolo, C. M. & Sitlington, P. L. (1988). The role of special education in LD adolescents' transition from

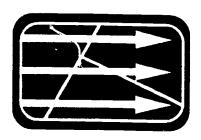


- school to work. <u>Learning Disabilities Quarterly</u>, 11, 292-306.
- Rusch, F. R. & Phelps, L. A. (1987). Secondary special educators and transition from school to work: A national priority. Exceptional Children, 53, 487-492.
- Schalock, R. L. & Lilley, M. A. (1986). Placement from community-based mental retardation programs: How well do clients do after 8 to 10 years? <u>American Journal of Mental Deficiency</u>, <u>90</u>, 669-676.
- Sitlington, P. L. & Frank. A. R. (1990). Are adolescents with learning disabilities successfully crossing the bridge into adult life? <u>Learning Disabilities Quarterly</u>, 13, 97-111.
- Smith, N. (1990). flexibility in the evaluation of emergent programs. <u>Studies in Educational</u> Evaluation, 16, 209-229.

- Wehman, P., Hill, M., Hill, J. W., Brooke, V., Pendleton, P., & Britt, C. (1985). Competitive employment for persons with mental retardation: A follow-up six years later. <u>Mental Retardation</u>, 23, 274-281.
- Wehman, P., Kregel, J., & Seyfarth, J. (1985). Transition from school to work for individuals with severe handicaps: A follow-up study. <u>Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps</u>, 10, 132-136.
- Wehman, P., Moon, M. S., Everson, J. M., Wood, W. & Barcus, J. M. (1988). <u>Transition from School to Work</u>. Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.

36





The Transition Specialist Program at California State University San Bernardino

Jeff McNair, Ph. D., Director Richard Ashcroft, Ed. D., Co-Director Joseph Turpin, Ph. D., Co-Director

